Sensitivity Calculations

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Sensitivities are used as measures of robustness for engineering systems. In many applications, one is interested about the system performance under small variations of a set of design parameters. In inverse device design, sensitivities guides the search within the space spanned by a set of design parameters.

Problem Formulation

Assuming **G** is a vector of design merits $(G_1[\mathbf{x}], G_2[\mathbf{x}], \dots, G_n[\mathbf{x}])$, where each component is a scaler function of m design parameters \mathbf{x} (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) . The goal is to find the sensitivity of the design merit G_i with respect to the design parameter x_j :

$$S_{ij} = \frac{dG_i}{dx_i} \tag{1}$$

The entries S_{ij} form the elements of the $n \times m$ Jacobian matrix S which maps m input parameters to n output merits. The Jacobian could be seen as a generalization of the slope constant s in g(x) = sx, but now is used for multivariate vetor functions. The entries of row $S_i = \frac{dG_i}{dx}$ are the sensitivities of the merit function G_i with respect to all the design parameters. The entries of column $S_j = \frac{dG}{dx_j}$ are the sensitivities of all the merit functions with respect to the single design parameter x_j

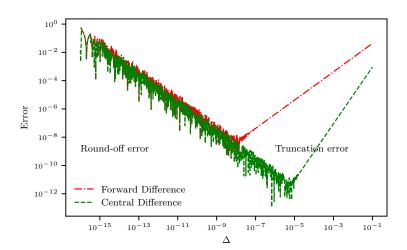
Finite Difference Method

In the finite difference approximation, the sensitivity column $\frac{d\mathbf{G}}{dx_j}$ is calculated by perturbing the design parameter x_j by a step Δx_j and then evaluating the new merits \mathbf{G} . In its simplest form, it is based on the limit definition of a derivative:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{G}}{dx_j} \approx \frac{\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{\Delta}_j) - \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})}{\mathbf{\Delta}_j} \tag{2}$$

where $\Delta_j = \Delta_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_j$. If we have m design parameters, we need to finite difference m times to fill all the columns of the Jacobian S. The finite difference is simple to implement, but there are some severe disadvantages:

- The objective function may be very costly to be perturbed and evaluated m times, especially if m is large.
- The finite difference suffers from truncation errors ^{1 2} so the step size Δ_i should be very small. Practically, a very small step will lead to subtractive cancellation errors . So choosing a balanced step size is a problem by itself and we need to solve the this problem *m* times for each design parameter.



The numerical accuracy could be improved by using higher-order finite differences, however it also increased computational complexity and did not not completely eliminated truncation errors.

Automatic Differentiation

Automatic differentiation (AD), also called algorithmic differentiation, is a family of techniques for efficiently and accurately evaluating derivatives of numeric functions expressed as computer programs. The key idea behind AD is that all complicated mathematical functions will be at the end represented on a computer by a composition of a finite set of elementary operations $(+, -, /, *, \sin, \cos, \sqrt{})$ with exactly known partial derivatives. Chain rules would then be applied to find the overall derivatives. Automatic differentiation comes in two modes, the forward mode and the reverse mode. The reverse mode is advantageous for calculating the sensitivities of a small number of outputs with respect to a large number of input parameters. The forward mode is advantageous in the opposite case, when the number of outputs is larger compared to the number of inputs.

¹ Truncation error is the error of approximation, or inaccuracy, one gets from h not actually being zero. It is proportional to a power of Δ .

Figure 1: Error in the forward and central difference approximations as a function of step size Δ .

² Finite difference approximation commits both cardinal sins of numerical analysis: "thou shalt not add small numbers to big numbers", and "thou shalt not subtract numbers which are approximately equal"